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**Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children
in Bosnia and Herzegovina**

**(A Study Commissioned by the UNICEF Office
in Bosnia and Herzegovina)**

Sarajevo, November 1996

Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia and Herzegovina

1. The situation of the system before the 1992-1995 war

1.0. Historical overview

1.1. Beginnings of public education system: the Austro-Hungarian period

The tradition of public education under the auspices of government (i.e. *state-controlled*) in Bosnia and Herzegovina has had its origin in the times of the Austro-Hungarian rule in these parts, in the period commencing after 1878 and ending in 1918. In the previous time, the education was almost exclusively restricted to the religious communities and the types of schools they had offered included a rather limited number of pupils. Certain attempts towards modernization of education by the failing Ottoman government in Bosnia in 1860s by the Governor (*vali*) Topal Osman Pasha could not be seen as the systematic introduction to the system of public education. Nevertheless, the process of growing self-identification of the four major religious communities in Bosnia and Herzegovina (Islamic, Roman Catholic, Eastern Orthodox and Jewish) in the course of 19th century affected their self-awareness as future nations-in-making (Bosniaks /Bosnian Moslems/, /Bosnian/ Serbs, /Bosnian/ Croats and Jews, respectively). The call for religious, cultural and educational autonomy in all these communities was equalized with their different political ambitions and goals. Whereas the /Bosnian/ Croats and Jews, as well as the number of civil servants and other foreigners from all parts of the Austro-Hungarian Empire welcomed opening of public schools, the Bosniaks and /Bosnian/ Serbs, at first, resisted it having seen it as a devious attempt by the new administration to restrain their claims for national self-assertion and ties with the Ottoman Turkey and Serbia, respectively.

This was reflected in a number of schools organized on religious/national background. The /Serb/ Orthodox and /Bosniak/ Muslim communities resisted closing of such schools. The Moslem community had two kinds of primary schools: the traditional (*sybian-mektebs*) and the reformed ones (*mektebs-ibtiadiye*). The situation was somewhat different

Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

with the Roman Catholics in Bosnia-Herzegovina. Whereas the Franciscan private schools gradually disappeared by 1883, there was still some private schools run by different Roman Catholic orders of Nuns (Sisters of Mercy, Heart of Jesus). In order to win allegiance of the Moslem population, the Austro-Hungarian administration, with the consent of the Muslim religious Council, opened in 1893 the Teacher Training Secondary School for future teachers in the Moslem national schools (*Dar ul-mualimin*). It was the second teacher training secondary school in the country on the religious pretext, the first one having been opened in 1884 within the Roman Catholic Institute of St. Vinko (Vincent). There was also the Orthodox Teacher Training School, but the first state-owned, or public Teacher Training Secondary School was opened in 1886. The next school of a kind was opened as the Teacher Training Secondary School for Girls also in Sarajevo in 1911, and, finally, in 1913, the Secondary Teacher Training School was opened in Mostar.

Once the goals for educational and religious autonomy were achieved, the Orthodox and Muslim communities also accepted the new kind of schooling. The system of public education was gradually introduced and favored by the Austro-Hungarian administration in Bosnia and Herzegovina. In the period 1878-1881, 32 state primary schools were opened. Their number rose to 93 in 1893. The first legislation on the obligatory primary education was passed in 1912 (Compulsory Elementary Education Act). In the same year there was 331 primary schools within the country wide system of public schools. It ran parallel to a variety of private-owned or community backed schools (mostly primary or even some secondary "vocational" training schools) and institutions which trained future priests of all denominations. In 1910, there were 1,970 *sybian-mektebs* with 64,805 students and 84 reformed *mektebs* for boys and 10 for girls with 7,719 students in them (6,457 male and 1,262 female ones). In 1913-1914, there were 123 Serbian Orthodox schools with 9,736 children in them (7,324 male and 2,412 female ones) as compared to 116 in 1912. Most of these schools were in the region of Sarajevo (14), Mostar (23), Tuzla (27), Banja Luka (36), Travnik 14) and in Bihaæ (9). In addition, in 1912, there were also 28 private Roman Catholic schools (in Sarajevo (4), Tuzla (2), Banja Luka and its vicinity (6), Bosanska Gradi_ka (4), Travnik (2), Zenica (2) and one (1) each in Derventa, Bihaæ, Bugojno, Jajce, Brèko, _epèe, Duvno /now Tomislavgrad/ and Mostar); 2 Protestant (Evangelist) and 10 other private schools. Only 42,578 pupils or 26.75% of the school age children attended the primary education in the same year. During the first 25 years, the central government invested 6,758,442 crowns in the state primary schools, whereas the local communities paid 5,822,746 crowns for the same

Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

purpose. Altogether, during the 40 years period of the Austro-Hungarian administration (1878-1918) more than 320 school buildings were built throughout the country. The number of secondary schools was comparatively smaller (only 6 grammar schools (*gymnasium*) and a number of trade schools). There were no higher education institutions during this period in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Some students continued their education abroad, mostly in Graz and Vienna (Austria), Munich (Germany) or Prague (Bohemia), and also in Zagreb and Belgrade.

1.2. The creation of the Kingdom of Yugoslavia: 1918-1941

After the dissolution of the Austro-Hungarian Empire in 1918, the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes was formed under the royal crown of the Karadjordjeviæs dynasty. In 1929, it was renamed the Kingdom of Yugoslavia. The new country was comprised of the former two independent Kingdoms: Serbia (which also included larger parts of Macedonia after the two Balkans' Wars (1912-1913) and the region of Kosovo), and Montenegro; as well as of the former Austro-Hungarian provinces: Vojvodina, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia and Slovenia. In terms of education, the Serbian schools, which had closed in 1914, did not reopen. The Moslem and Roman Catholic schools run by nuns remained present as private schools. Some of them adapted their curricula in order to preserved the status as accredited schools. The system of public education remained in use and it did not undergo major changes. This period, which lasted until 1941 when the country was attacked by the Axis Powers and dismembered into several territories mostly dependent of Nazi Germany and the Fascist Italy; was marked by a slow or no development in terms of new schools or education innovations. Bosnia and Herzegovina particularly lagged behind the other, more developed regions. Only 10 schools opened per year. In 1941, there were 1,181 primary schools with around 170,000 pupils and 3,200 teachers. Many of Bosnia's inhabitants remained illiterate, and the whole system was very much influenced by the ideology and practice from the ruling circles in Belgrade. The system officially favored the idea of one state and people (Yugoslavia and Yugoslavs) divided into three tribes (Serbs, Croats and Slovenians), and it did not recognize any other ethnic groups of Slavic origin (Bosniaks-Moslems, Montenegrins, Macedonians), or non-Slavic minorities (Albanians, Turks, Hungarians, Germans, Italians, Jews etc.). Nevertheless, the official idea was mostly a cover-up for the dominance of Serbia and its elite, combined with favoring of Eastern Orthodox religion, history, literature, arts, customs, a Serbian

Prof. Dr. Srebren Dizzdar
Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

variant of language and other features which caused opposition among other nations in the country.

1.3. The World War II Period: 1941-1945

After the collapse of the first Yugoslavia in 1941, Bosnia and Herzegovina became the part of the so called Independent State of Croatia. The new regime was set up by the Croatian nationalists strongly allied to the Nazi Germany and the Fascist Italy. It promoted a racist and discriminatory ideology against the Jews, Serbs, Gypsies and any political opponents to its policy of national and political exclusivity. Due to the war situation, the education system was mostly disrupted. Since Bosnia and Herzegovina was the scene of many clashes between the resistance movements under Marshall Tito led Communist Partisans, the Serbian *Chetnik* nationalists under general Mihailoviæ, the Croatian *Ustasha* forces of Dr. Ante Paveliæ, the number of local militias of all kinds, and the German and Italian troops, respectively; the education system was almost halted. The country suffered from terrible destruction and the losses in human lives. About 400,00 were estimated to lost their lives in the 1941-1945 period in Bosnia and Herzegovina out of 2,850,000 before the war. Out of 1,181 school buildings, 595 were completely destroyed, 144 were severely damaged and 192 were slightly damaged. The education, in general, was sporadic and irregular. At the end of World War II, major changes took place there - this time within the framework of the newly established Communist regime.

1.4. The period of the Communist Yugoslavia: 1945 - 1990.

Regardless of the changes in political systems and respective state organization, public education continued to strengthen in the course of 20th century. After 1945, when the Communist ideology prevailed in the country, now described as "second" Yugoslavia, private schools legally disappeared and the religious schools lost their previous significance since the new regime saw them as the potential opponents to its rule. The situation was particularly specific in Bosnia and Herzegovina, because of its central position and the mixture of nations, cultures, religions and the memories of confronted ethnic/national, political, economic, cultural interests in the recent past. At the beginning of June 1945, the first post-

Prof. Dr. Srebren Dizzdar
Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

school year began. It lasted to October of the same year. In 1945, there were 684 primary schools with 97,116 students and 1,288 teachers.

In this 45 years long period (1945-1990), the system did not differ much from the other parts of former Yugoslavia in terms of the dominant ideology, the overall structure and model(s) of education per level, the contents and form of curricula, the usual competence and performance of qualified (certified) teachers and other staff, and other relevant features of the system as such. Where Bosnia lagged particularly behind until the late Sixties, was the number and quality of educational premises and facilities (i.e. school buildings and their labs, gyms, school libraries, teaching aids and appropriate other school material), its own trained teachers in adequate numbers (for a number of decades teachers were sent from other parts of Yugoslavia there, mostly from Serbia and Montenegro, and to some extent Croatia), and the balanced distribution of educational institutions at all levels.

The main postulate of the system could be summed up in the publicly proclaimed policy that the education was open to all the pupils regardless of their ethnic, social, religious, or any other background. Such an approach attempted to level the previous differences under the proclaimed political slogans of “brotherhood and unity” as a viable cover for the prevailing Communist viewpoints. The system was organized according to the traditional territorial principles (villages, municipalities, larger towns and districts/regions /*srez or kotar*/ which, historically, represented common territorial division of the country). Main emphasis was given to the youngest generations - those in pre-school and primary education, as well as to the children with physical and mental disabilities. In 1947, the first seven-year schools were opened. Two years later, eight-year long primary education became compulsory. It is interesting to note that in the first ten years after World War II, there were three types of primary schools present: four-year, six-year and eight-year long. In 1955, there were: 1,971 four-year schools with 222,358 pupils and 4,224 teachers, 165 six-year schools with 34,131 pupils and 738 teachers; and 114 eight-year schools with 55,841 pupils and 1,161 teachers. In 1958, the General Law on Primary Education accomplished the major and radical reform of this level of education. It lasted eight years (grades 1-8) and was made obligatory for all the children between age 7 - 15. The network of four-year schools was gradually abolished. There was an increasing number of transitional six-year schools. In 1962, there were 520 such schools. Certain corrections in the education system were made in 1964, and a considerable change took place in 1972 with some minor additions in 1975. In 1974/75, there were: 1,959 four-year schools with 174,257 pupils and 6,329

Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

teachers; 18 six-year schools with 5,177 pupils and 169 teachers; and 749 complete eight-year schools with 499,163 pupils and 19,018 teachers. The new innovations in curricula were introduced in 1979; and, finally, the most recent changes were implemented in 1987 when the common, "all-Yugoslav" core curriculum was established for the whole of "Socialist Federative Republic of Yugoslavia", as the country was officially known since 1963. A continuation of education at the secondary level was largely stimulated.

A number of attempts to reform the secondary education occurred in the late Sixties and throughout the Seventies. Both primary and secondary education were free of charge (as well as all the other levels from pre-school to higher education for that matter), but parents had to bear the costs of purchasing textbooks and other school material, sports outfits and other incidental expenses, such as field trips. As the education system developed and encompassed a variety of professions offered at the secondary level, and the number of universities opened in other places but Sarajevo (Tuzla, Banja Luka, and Mostar, with some higher education institutions in Zenica, Bihaæ and Brèko), the financial burden on parents and students increased.

Nevertheless, there was a slow, yet constant and gradual percentage of pupils covered with the primary education. It reached the overall young generation between 7 - 15 years (100%) in the early Eighties. It was an enormous population which represented 12.6% of the total number of inhabitants of Bosnia and Herzegovina. In 1990/91 academic year, the primary education was organized in 2,203 primary schools where 547,164 pupils went to school in 19,802 units (classes). The teaching process involved 34,355 persons, out of which 27,160 teachers and management and administration staff. Out of this number, 70% of pupils continued their education in secondary education. In the same academic year, there were 239 secondary schools in Bosnia and Herzegovina where 172,556 pupils went to 5,605 units. 9,610 teachers taught at this level of education. 48 different higher education institutions (4-years faculties and arts academies, 2-years academies and junior colleges) had 37,763 students and 2,340 teachers and other staff. This means that in the country with 4,377 033 inhabitants, according to the 1991 census, there were 757,000 students at all the levels, and about 50,000 teachers and other staff. More than 800,000 persons were involved in education. It was a considerable number of people (34.4%) in the total structure of population, the financing of which demanded huge amount of money. It should be observed that these figures did not represent the maximum enrollment. In 1970/71 there were 644,497 pupils in 2,714 schools with 22,428 units and 21,798 teachers. At

Prof. Dr. Srebren Dizdar
Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

the end of the Seventies, there were 625,619 pupils in primary schools, 227,408 in secondary schools and 48,461 students in higher education.

Even the countries with strong economic potentials could not bear such an expansion of the education system. In the Eighties, the funds available decreased dramatically. The percentage of education in GDP dropped from 5.6% in 1975 (as compared to 5.4% in the whole of Yugoslavia) to 3.3% in 1989. The primary education suffered even more serious blows - its percentage in GDP was around 1.85% in 1990. The investments in education also declined. In the late Sixties, when the "1,000 new schools" was the official slogan and policy in Bosnia and Herzegovina under the more ambitious and younger Communist leadership, some 875 new buildings for primary education only were either built or reconstructed (335 premises for grades 1-4, and 540 for grades 1-8), or 4,231 classrooms and 326 gyms. Just before the war, there was 692 premises which housed the central primary schools, 1,495 rural schools (grades 1-4) and 209 ones (grades 1-8). The total number of primary schools was 2,396 with 1,922 755 square meters of useful surface space, or 3.30 per pupil.

1.5. The period prior to and after the multiparty elections: 1990-1992:

The similar situation was in all other levels of education. It could be affirmed that Bosnia and Herzegovina, prior to first free multiparty elections in 1990, the consequent dissolution of Yugoslavia, and the tragic events that led to the war and catastrophe of major proportions in the 1992-1996 period, has had a fairly well developed system of education, appropriate school premises and adequate number and structure of students and teachers. The system suffered from many weaknesses not different from any other country in the last years of the Communist rule in Eastern and Central Europe. It was characterized by the distinct ideology, a traditional heavy load at all levels, conservative and detailed curricula with a number of overspecialized courses and professions offered at both secondary and higher education level, sometimes quite outdated teaching methods and means of instruction, and many other faults which became the focus of attention towards the end of the Eighties. Combined with the highly centralized system of planning, governance and management, and the failing funds for its efficient sustainability and further development, the education system reflected growing problems of the whole system. For the first time ever in almost fifty years, teachers had threatened and went

Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

to strike. The Bosnian educators called for a major change. They demanded a transition towards the Western European system of education within the overall calls for the change of the political environment throughout Eastern and Central Europe.

Curiously enough, these requests were not suppressed. They were taken into serious consideration. Detailed studies were conducted, a series of discussions among experts and educators followed, and several rather important documents on the possible changes and reforms in education were published in 1990, 1991 and even in early 1992. The new approach quickly found its legal form in the laws on primary, secondary and higher education, and the laws on pre-school and special education were soon to follow. The changes proposed reflected the general demand for a gradual change into more flexible educational environment, similar to the one which had been already developed in some Western European countries. Pre-school institutions could be established as private or state owned, or within any other means of ownership. Primary school was supposed to last nine years and to cover the pupils age 6 - 15. Individualism was stressed as the quality which was supposed to become the central issue at this level of education, as compared to the decades of collectivism and leveling to the needs and abilities of average students and not the more talented ones. Secondary education finally ended the biggest failure in the previous dominant principle of "directed education" /*usmjereni obrazovanje*/, with a large variety of narrow and overspecialized types of professions student would have after completion of the secondary school. Higher education had to be more rational and to reach the quality of the comparable systems in Western Europe and USA. Democratic changes, pluralism of cultures and policies, ethnic/national equality and tolerance, freedom of cultural specificities and linguistic and other expressions were supposed to present the variety of multicultural features of many nations and groups in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The ideal was to educate new generations as free persons in the prevailing spirit of mutual respect, understanding and common goals and to enable them to create better future in prosperity, free market economy and parliamentary democracy.

Certain long-term studies on each level of education for the 21st century completed in the early 1992 promoted these projected and wished for changes within the framework of constant growth and development of education until the year 2010. They were more than simply enthusiastic or futuristic - equipped with the best theories one could only hope for to quote in order to present a rosy picture for the time "just about to come". It was the remnant of the outgoing philosophy, or even ideology. Everything had to be proved in theory and supported with scientific apparatus, charts, data,

Prof. Dr. Srebren Dizzar
Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

figures, percentages, but the constant raising scale had to be there all the time. When scrutinized after the four years of utmost misery in Bosnia and Herzegovina, these reports and predictions leave a bitter taste of totally misread ***quantifications*** and conclusions. They were out of reality even if the war and destruction did not take place. Their basic assumptions were wrong, or even false, because the previous system had not taught the people who did these studies to imagine an entirely different political and social and economic environment. That is why these findings and predictions stood in sharp contrast to the projected ***goals and quality of education product*** or end results.

2. Devastating effects of 1992-1996 war

2.1. The first two war years: 1992-1993

The aggression and the subsequent war on the territory of the newly proclaimed Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina in April 1992 disrupted all the aspects of normal life in the country. Among many other things, the education system fell to pieces. The country became a broken mosaic of many isolated islands. They often could not establish the simple means of communications among themselves, there were no steady funding (or any funding for that matter), many school premises were either razed to ground, heavily destroyed or severely damaged. Some schools were taken by refugees or displaced persons, or military and police units as their temporary residence or accommodation places. Millions of textbooks were burned down; as well as the school or town libraries; there was no school supply or other adequate material, labs, gyms, school furniture and teaching aids were stolen, looted or simply not accessible for their original purposes. In 1992, the education system in Bosnia and Herzegovina almost vanished as an organized human activity. Many teachers and students were killed in shelling and sniping, some were detained in concentration camps and exposed to various forms of denigration and torture. Others were forced to leave their former places of residence and sought refuge in 109 countries all over the globe. There was a general lack of basic living provisions, and the education material was considered as some kind of “luxury” in comparison to food, sanitation, medical supply, clothing, footwear and such items.

Prof. Dr. Srebren Dizzdar
Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

As the result of the course of the military operations and various plans of the international community for a viable political solution in 1992 and 1993, Bosnia and Herzegovina entered in 1994 as divided into three territories controlled by the Bosnian Serbs' self-styled regime at Pale ("Republika Srpska") near Sarajevo (about 70% of the country's territory), the Bosnian Croats' regime at Grude ("Croatian Republic of Herzeg-Bosnia") in Western Herzegovina (about 20% of the territory), whereas the government of the Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina in Sarajevo controlled the remaining parts (about 10%). At one moment, in the Fall of 1993, there was even self-proclaimed "Autonomous Region of /North/Western Bosnia" around the rather small pocket at Velika Kladu_a under the leadership of the ambitious Bosniak politician from that region, Fikret Abdiæ. All these territories claimed to have organized their own system(s) of education.

"Republika Srpska" simply applied the curricula and other relevant features from Serbia and Montenegro, or the "Federal Republic of Yugoslavia" (FRY), as this country was known after April 27, 1992. The "Herzeg-Bosnia" relied heavily on the education system and its characteristic features in the Republic of Croatia. It is not known what (if anything) was the case with the education in the "Autonomous Region of Western Bosnia". The territories under the control of B&H Army did not make one single system until the late 1993, and certain areas, such as enclaves in Eastern Bosnia (Srebrenica, _epa and Gora_de), or in Northwestern Bosnia (Bihaæ) remained inaccessible to the end of hostilities in the late summer and early autumn of 1995.

2.2. Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina: 1994-1996

After the mediation of the international community led by USA, the armed conflict between the former allies against the Serbian aggression - the B&H Army and Croatian Defense Council (HVO) - ended with the signing of Washington and Vienna Agreements in March and May 1994. These documents envisaged a new political structure on the territories controlled by B&H Army and HVO called the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. The territory was further to be subdivided into smaller, highly decentralized and autonomous, units labeled as *cantons*. Cantons were given the right to become responsible for many areas of activities previously exclusively in the hands of the central government. Education was one of them. The process was meant to ensure the absence of

Prof. Dr. Srebren Dizdar
Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

dominance of any ethnic group over the other and to create a democratic environment in line with the world, and particularly European, tendencies of regional decentralization. Due to various reasons, mostly of political nature, the Federation did not succeed in becoming a stable reality although the first cantons were formed in Tuzla in 1994, and later on in Zenica and Bihaæ. In terms of education systems, the territory of the Federation saw two concurrent, parallel systems. They did not really communicate between themselves until February 1996, when the central Government of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the Government of the Federation became two different bodies with the different scope of responsibilities. This was made possible by two related changes in the course of the war in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

2.3. End of fighting and the Dayton Peace Accords: Autumn 1995

The dramatic events in the fall of 1995, after the continuous NATO air raids against the Serb military installations, the major offensive by B&H Army, HVO and regular Croatian forces, resulted in the change of the control over the territories. The Dayton Peace Talks in November 1995, and the Paris signature on December 14, 1995 recognized two territories within the single and sovereign country, now known as Bosnia and Herzegovina: The Federation, comprised of 10 cantons (51% of the pre-war territory) and Republika Srpska as the other entity (49%). They were to retain the high level of control over their affairs. Only the formal, state representation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, various aspects of international relations, Central Bank and the single currency remained in the hands of central government. Education was to become the sole responsibility of the entities. In the case of the Federation it was even further decentralized to the cantonal authorities (i.e. ministries of education). Such a framework envisaged the return of refugees and displaced persons to their homes, a persecution of war criminals, demilitarization of armed forces and demobilization of former soldiers, and a heavy international economic and political assistance in order to provide normal conditions of living. The Dayton Plan also envisaged a more democratic, pluralistic political environment with the newly elected representatives within the entities and on the central level.

Nine months after signing the Peace Accords in Paris, on September 14, 1996 the general elections took place. Although far from perfect or democratic, the elections provided the initial framework for the re-

Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

integration of the country in the joint Parliament and three-persons Presidency. At the time of this evaluation, in November 1996, even the initial stage has not been achieved due to the absence of the Serb representatives on the inaugural ceremony of the joint bodies on October 5, 1996 in Sarajevo. Under the strong international pressure, the subsequent meetings of the three persons Presidency (the highest representation of the three constituent nations in the country), comprised of Mr. Izetbegoviæ, Mr. Zubak and Mr. Kraji_nik, did not produce any concrete results. The Council of Ministers was not chosen, although its structure had been finally agreed upon (two co-prime ministers /Bosniak and Serb/ rotating on a weekly basis, one deputy prime minister /Croat/, three ministers: foreign affairs /Croat/, civil affairs and communications /Serb/ and foreign trade and economic relations /Bosniak/, with two deputies to each minister /from other two respective nations/), since there were different interpretations of its prerogatives and possible handling of affairs under its competence. At the end of November 1996, the situation seems to have evolved towards some kind of central government to be set up. Nevertheless, the central parliament never met, the Government of the Federation was still being negotiated by the most relevant political parties in terms of positions the new/old partners would like to have for the next period. The local elections were postponed for the spring of even summer 1997. There were too many incidents and obstacles that burdened the process of normalization. The future of the country, as well as the eventual predictions for its reconstruction and possible development, would depend a great deal on the main political issues. These issues - the full implementation of the Dayton Accords - would definitely influence the amount of economic assistance, the involvement of international organizations and associations, certain friendly and other countries, NGOs, governmental or private foundations and/or individual companies or other potential donors.

2.4. The Current Situation in the Federation: Autumn 1996

In the spring and summer of 1996 there were attempts to bring the two systems within the Federation to the point of exchanging, at least, the first information about the nature of each one of the systems. They did not differ much in terms of their pre-war legacy - they both reflected the decades of the previous education system developed as ideological, centralized and conservative in approach to all the relevant issues. Since the process of uniting the Federation as the ***political entity*** (i.e. comparable

Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

to the other one - Republika Srpska) was the subject of political negotiations in July-August 1996, the two education systems could not become closer at the level of simple recognition before the political process came into effect. However, the Dayton Accords envisaged not just two but ***ten possible education systems***, because each canton had the right to develop its own system according to its own preference and the political will of its inhabitants. The September 1996 elections showed that two major national parties - The Party of Democratic Action (SDA - representing largely the Bosniaks /i.e. Bosnian Moslems/), and Croatian Democratic Union (HDZ - representing mostly the /Bosnian/ Croats), won majority in six cantons (SDA: Bihać, Tuzla, Zenica, Gora_de, Sarajevo, Travnik), whereas the HDZ won the majority in the remaining four cantons (Posavina /Ora_je/, Neretva /i.e. Mostar and central Herzegovina), Western Herzegovina /Grude/, and so called “Canton 10” - Livno and South-Western Bosnia). Since two of these cantons are, by definition, ***mixed*** ones (the Travnik and Neretva cantons respectively), the usual rule of democracy that the winner creates the political environment according to its own political philosophy could not be applied fully either there, or in all the other cantons. The projected political system in the Federation depends, first of all, on the understanding if the entity meant the federation of cantons, or the federation of two dominant nations in the Federation (Bosniaks and Croats). Since each one of the previous partners and the current winners after the elections define its own philosophy behind the making of the Federation as exclusively right (SDA favors the Federation of cantons whereas HDZ demands the ethnic composition as the dominant criterion), this could affect the further development in the field of education on the Federation territory. The other political parties or coalition of parties could not effectively influence the decision-making process, since the two leading parties have won about 75% of the seats on both cantonal and the Federation level. Nevertheless, it should be understood that education was seen as one of the key issues in the process of reconstruction of Bosnia and Herzegovina, its transition to a democratic and free market society. Most parties wanted to see Bosnia and Herzegovina as a country within the wider context of Central Europe, Mediterranean Region, Council of Europe's cluster of countries, and, finally, in the integration into the European Community. Some specific ties with both the Islamic World, and the Western democracies, most particularly, with USA were given as hallmarks for the further direction in accepting and modifying the models in education.

For this reason, the possible suggestions and recommendations for the future must bear in mind these and other restrictions in offering the coherent but viable viewpoints to the Federation Ministry of Education and

Prof. Dr. Srebren Dizdar
Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

to the cantonal Ministries, as well as all other potential or interested players in the process (i.e. individual donors, various humanitarian, governmental and non-governmental agencies and organizations, and the representatives of major international agencies such as UNICEF, UNESCO, UNHCR etc.).

3. Subsector analysis of levels and types of education

3.1. 1. Early child development and care

Traditionally, in Bosnia and Herzegovina, this aspect of care encompasses the children 0-6 years old. In the previous system and within the current situation it could only hope to include as many children as possible, mostly in the larger urban settlements. It could be estimated that in the years prior to the war, there was only 4% of children who attended kindergartens in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The ratio was somewhat better in Sarajevo where 8% of children age 3-6 attended kindergartens before 1992. The basic problem was the lack of proper funding. Due to the mixed approach of the previous ideology to the issue, there was no clear policy who was really responsible for handling the matter. Since children were publicly proclaimed to have been “most precious little citizens”, the problem was largely dealt with within the sector of social welfare. This sector was responsible for the overall environment of a number and types of kindergartens and nursery schools (*jaslice, obdani_te, zabavi_te*). These institutions began to develop mostly in the early Sixties. Their purpose was to relieve the working mothers from the responsibility of minding their children and to increase the much needed labor force at the time when Bosnia and Herzegovina underwent major stage of its post-World War II. industrial and social development - from the mid-Sixties to the late Seventies. Curiously enough, the attitude prevailed that this stage of child's development and care was somewhat a luxury! Very early, parents were asked to participate in financing the expenses of their children. In some areas, where there were larger industrial facilities, or where the community had more funds at its disposal for this purpose, some premises were opened with qualified personnel. Children were placed in the type of institution according to their age group. The youngest ones in nurseries (*jaslice*) mostly spent the time there eating and sleeping. The slightly older group in a “daily care premise” (*obdani_te*) had a combination of eating, sleeping and some play, whereas the most advanced group (*zabavi_te* -

Prof. Dr. Srebren Dizzdar
Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

“*play and fun*”) managed to involve various types of activities with the emphasis on the children's creativity through play and fun.

The number of premises, qualified personnel and children remained limited throughout the period. Towards the mid-Eighties, new initiatives emerged. They revolved around the idea that a private sector could be involved in this type of child development and care. It was seen by some more ambitious and enterprising persons as a nice possibility to make an extra income while subletting larger and well furnished flats for the purpose of nurseries and kindergartens. At one moment, the idea received popular and political support. Certain discussion took place about the quality of premises and the qualifications of ladies who had applied for a job. In the years just before the war (1989-1990), there was a major breakthrough in the concept of ownership over such premises. In the Long-term Development Strategy of Education, private ownership became equal with the public or socially-owned institutions of a kind. The rationale was that a number of unemployed women could find work in such places, that private funds could be used for a good cause, and that the overall quality of this segment of child care could improve a great deal. Having introduced other possibility of ownership, the legislators in 1990 hoped to influence the future development in this subsector, and, gradually, firstly, equalize the ratio of public-owned with private-owned premises; and, secondly, achieve the private sector supremacy.

The process gained impetus immediately, but was halted in the course of the war. Most of such premises were destroyed or used as collective shelters, or as military or police compounds. Even the small funds in the state-owned sector dried up. The private one disappeared entirely, although it was largely imitated in the so-called war-schools and nurseries. The official ban on the work of such institutions was lifted only towards the end of hostilities. The normalization depended on the good will of international organizations and donors. Again, the process of reconstruction was limited to the larger towns. Some results were achieved in Sarajevo, Mostar and Bihać (mostly with the help of Save the Children from USA, the Open Society Fund of Bosnia-Herzegovina - Soros Foundation, and a few other governmental agencies and NGOs from Germany, Spain, Turkey, France and Scandinavia), and in Zenica and Tuzla, where the local authorities managed to return some of the premises to the original function.

The demand is still not equal to the potentials and achieved results. In Sarajevo only, there are about 30,000 children in the age 0-6. Only one tenth of them (3,000) are covered with some kind of early child care in

Prof. Dr. Srebren Dizzdar
Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

about 20 premises which had been repaired or reconstructed. The same ratio applies to other places. There is no major investment in the subsector apart from the Save the Children attempts to open up playgroups in both Croatia and Bosnia and Herzegovina. The philosophy of the project was based on low cost, rapid replication, high quality, broad scale and community ownership. It is true that more than 626 community based playgroups opened by August 1996 out of 770, which was the target by mid-1997, when the project plans to finish its activities. Its main strength lies in the low-cost approach and modest premises where the children could spend 3 hours per day in various activities. However, such an approach has its flaws, too. Its weakness is a limited period of support and funding. Local communities could not continue developing the program once it terminates its activities. It could be predicted that almost half of them would close immediately. This could be an indication of the final result of short term projects in the crisis or transition situations.

The situation is somewhat different with the “Head Start” (or “Step by Step”) Project financed by the Soros Foundation (1.5. million \$). The Project envisaged both physical restoration of the premises and the training of qualified, mostly younger personnel. It is largely influenced by the liberal American approach to the issue, since most of the training and input comes from USA. The Project plans to encompass other parts of the Federation, and to establish ties with a number of institutions interested in providing expertise and other kind of assistance other then a mere physical reconstruction.

Another important player in this segment is the “Fatma” Agency in Sarajevo. It is the Agency supported by the SDA party and the number of institutions throughout the municipalities of the Federation with the Bosniak majority. Its purpose is to take care primarily about the children of the dead soldiers, or children who lost one or both parents. The Agency promotes well educated and well reared child in the Islamic traditions as its major goal. It also sees its task as a long-term one through all the stages of education until children finish their education and find employment. The project evolves on the territorial principle where a number of volunteers, who went through necessary training procedures, literally act as custodians of the children in a certain section in town.

One of the more promising initiatives is SOS - Kinderdorf International (Children's Village), where the younger couples live as surrogate parents to small children until certain age. The project is well developed and it would materialize in its premises in Sarajevo (Mojmilo area) with a few other places in the country as the possible new sites.

Prof. Dr. Srebren Dizdar
Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

Target groups would particularly pay attention to the children who had lost their parents during the war.

3.1.2. Issues and recommendations

This area of activity seems to be a rather important issue which needs to be addressed here. This subsector is particularly sensitive since it deals with the quite vulnerable population. Under normal circumstances one should not differentiate between children of this age, but the Bosnian case demands different attitudes to the problem. A special program needs to be developed for the children who had suffered specific traumas - lost their parents or other relatives, were prisoners in concentration camps, were subject of various kinds of abuse as refugees or displaced persons (i.e. asked to walk through mine fields, sexually molested, suffered from all kinds of psychotic behavior etc.), or, simply, had an additional traumatic (psycho-social) burden of war effects on their early childhood period. The second group are the children with physical disabilities caused by the war, because their physical deficiencies could be the cause of mockery of other children of the same age in given situations. The third group represents the children who spent certain period of time abroad, or outside Bosnia in general. They would face problems of adjustment into their new environment, which happens to be their own home country. These problems include their inability to speak the language of their new friends, or not to be able to adjust properly into the postwar Bosnian reality. The final group of children are those who spent all the war period in the country with their families. They are, usually, the largest population which enters the nurseries or kindergartens since they remained "in the neighborhood" and were given preference over the other groups mentioned.

This does not mean that these groups should be separated or treated as non-fit to be in the same institution or age group. It only wants to emphasize the need for handling the situation according to the composition of children with different experience and background. The best results could be possibly achieved through a combination of methods and approaches to **mixed** groups of children. This also calls for creating of appropriate attitudes and strategies in dealing with these issues.

The number of premises needs to increase in the years to come. One should not be concerned about the variety of approaches because of different sponsors who provide funding for such establishments. Certain

Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

national criteria should be established and agreed upon by the professionals in the field with the help of international experts. This could be one of the major UNICEF activities in the next three years (1996-1998). UNICEF should act both as the leading agency in coordinating these activities, in developing the network of nurseries and kindergartens or any other type of institutions. Private ownership of establishments should be encouraged. A number of women without employment should be trained as future educators, but the main emphasis must be on the regular system of education - secondary teacher training schools, pedagogical academies and faculties of philosophy. New methodologies need to be introduced into the curricula in these educational institutions in a series of seminars, round tables and other expert meetings. International experts must come regularly to Bosnia and provide the new insights, skills and techniques.

The most important issue ought to be resolved parallel to the process of training and education. It is the matter of policy, governance, finance and structuring of these establishments into the framework of public care and expenditure. Due to the dual status before the war, the subsector suffered from inappropriate status. About 60% of funding came through the Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare, whereas the remaining 40% were given in the form of public funds in the education sector. Although this issue does fall into the category of public welfare, the available public funds must be merged into single budget line. The budget line must cover the whole subsector 100% in the first five years after the war. Gradually, there could be subsequent participation of other funds - from international assistance to private ones, from corporate to special endowment ones. Their ratio should become balanced, but at least 50% must be always provided from the public or state-provided funds. The national goal should be to include the whole population age 0 - 6 into some kind of care. The approach must be active and propulsive. In terms of governance and management, it should be observed that there had been no trained experts in the field before. Managers for such establishments were usually chosen from the carefully selected experienced and/or loyal senior staff members. Their training must also be envisaged, both in-service and through the regular education.

The subsector structure should be established as local (township or *mjesna zajednica*), municipal (*općina*) and cantonal (*kanton*). A balanced territorial distribution should be also taken into account. A network of institutions should be seen as the final goal starting from township and municipality, through canton, and ending at the level of the Federation. Several bodies representing community at a particular level (parents, professional and teachers' associations, various interest groups etc.) should

be set up as policy-making councils or boards. They would act both as a forum for exchanging views and opinions and would be responsible for setting up national standards and policies. They would neither provide nor dispose of funds to support the subsector. The usual structure of board of trustees, supervision and other committees and executive officers should be set up consequently at all levels. Managing of funds should follow the new financial regulations and procedures both in the transition period and in the period of normal operations. It should be pointed out that a stable support for the subsector must not fall into the trap of lacking any sound funds a few years after the international assistance ends. It would have disastrous effects for the subsector and jeopardize the overall efforts suggested above.

3.2.1. Pre-school education

Sometimes in the Seventies, there was a new approach to the children just about to enter the education system. Probably influenced by some world trends at the time, it was thought that this subsector should have covered children age 6 - 7. It only materialized in certain urban areas before the war. The rationale was that children at this sensitive age should be given a chance to get used to school environment. Quite often, these establishments were organized at the school premises. They were called "little schools" or "schools grade zero". Their main task was to prepare children for their school activities and duties. Such schools should have reduced the amount of fear instilled in children at early age. School was often described by parents and relatives alike as "a correction place". It was meant to be a serious thing. Children in primary and secondary schools were supposed to acquire vast amounts of knowledge, and become well-behaved citizens. When more pedagogues and school psychologists came into schools, certain studies showed that there was a level of maladjustment among school children in the early grades. Pre-school was thus seen as both the possible remedy to overcome these anxieties and also as the more normal starting point in education. It was also a testing ground for some children in order to scout their special talents and skills. Since they had not been considered as "real schools", more innovative methods of teaching and education could have been introduced in them. At one moment, these schools were considered as a step forward towards nine years long primary education. "Zero grade" would have become Grade 1 if the proposed changes in 1990 for nine years long primary school would have come into effect. The plan (and the subsequent legal procedure) envisaged at least five years long period before the system could become fully operational. If it was not for the war, the new system would have become valid by 1998.

3.2.2. Issues and recommendations

It should be observed that pre-school education needs to be rethought, perhaps not entirely, but in terms of overall policy towards primary and secondary education. If the previous analyses would be discussed again, they would most certainly demand nine years long system in primary school and four years system in secondary education. Pre-school subsector would be, then, moved to age 5 - 6, which means more changes in early child development and care. More international expertise must be introduced to this level. Bosnian educators must be also fully consulted in view of the system as a whole. It is here that different initiatives, including most definitely, the private ones should be taken into account. These initiatives should be quite open to the most recent trends in pre-school education. They should also rely heavily on multimedia approach when foreign languages and sophisticated information technology are concerned. Bosnian children must get used again at this level to the sound of foreign languages where English would be probably the first choice. The use of computers, CD ROM, audio and video equipment should be combined with the more traditional teaching skills and techniques. It is important to avoid degrading the new generations with outdated methods which should be transferred to school museums. It is there where the approach "school is fun" rather than "school is torture" should act as a catalyst in the primary education.

Such establishment should operate both within primary school premises and also at various resource centers for active learning and child care. This seems to be important because of the new technologies offered to such places. Not all the schools would have the chance to do so in a near future. Pre-schools should either be treated as mere entrance into the reformed school system, or as the new beginning of the changed nine years long system of primary education. Their future must be determined at the level of the Federation after serious considerations on a number of expert meetings with international experts. UNICEF should again become the key organization in assessing the needs together with possible partners, such as the "Soros Foundation" (currently the main donor in the subsector), or certain NGOs, agencies and professional associations from Europe and North America. Several schools should be chosen as sites for demonstrating new approaches to pre-school education, mostly there where primary schools are attached as demonstration classes to secondary teacher training schools and pedagogical academies. After the three years period of testing

Prof. Dr. Srebren Dizdar
Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

new approaches on different locations, a consensus should be reached at the Federation level. Parallel to this testing or experimental period, the appropriate legislation, financial and other issues should be discussed and resolved at municipal and cantonal level. The same criteria must be applied as in the early child development and care subsector in terms of policy, management and governance and financing of this subsector.

3.3.1. Primary education

The proposed changes in the framework of primary education did not take place due to the aggression and the war against Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1992. This segment of the system was affected the most during the military operations. Very often schools were targets of attacks with a single aim in mind - to disrupt or entirely halt the system of education there where it seemed to have been easy to break. Almost 58,000 children lost their lives on the territories under B&H Army control. Some of them were killed in their classrooms, while playing in front of the schools or on their way to/from school. The enrollment dramatically decreased in the war years. In 1993/94 there were 210,403 pupils in primary schools (103,034 of them were girls). In the next school year there was almost the same number of pupils: 209,808 (106,353 of them were girls). The number of teachers dropped from 27,878 (17,563 of them were ladies) to 7,057 in 1993/94 (4,181 of them were ladies) and to 8,300 in 1994/95 (5,220 of them were ladies). One must remember that the territory under the B&H Army control was rather limited and that the figures given are approximate. A large proportion of people who worked as teachers had not been certified in the process of regular education. They came from other professions related to education, or even from those professions which had nothing to do with teaching.

In the course of the war, many adjustments took place according to the prevailing circumstances. Instead in regular premises, education process was confined to shelters, basements, private apartments or other safe places. Curriculum was reduced by 35-40% of the pre-war load. Classes usually lasted 35 minutes in comparison to the regular 45 before the war. The academic year varied in terms of the number of weeks - from around 20-25 in the first two years to 30-32 weeks in 1994/95 to 35-38 in 1995/96 when the education process became almost normal after the cessation of hostilities in October 1995. The quality of education offered and performed varied. It should be considered as satisfactory in terms of totally abnormal conditions - without proper premises, teaching aids,

Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

sanitation and running water, electricity, heating, textbooks and other school material. Of course, there were large gaps noticed among certain age groups and in certain period of year (winter vs. summer), but it was important to keep the education process going. This was a constant worry of all educators and legal authorities. Classes could be canceled almost any moment, but there was always pending question when and why. From mid-1993 on, more methodical efforts in various parts of the country managed to bring together the broken segments of the whole system. It was decided that the proposed nine years long primary school system should be postponed for the more favorable period after the war. The previous, conservative and traditional system was re-introduced. Curricula were adjusted accordingly. A number of textbooks was produced (1.6 million copies) representing 56 titles for primary and secondary education. This trend continued in 1995 and 1996. Currently some 80 titles were published, the first re-printing of the already mentioned 56 titles in disciplines such as history, grammar, literature, geography, arts and music culture currently takes place, and other new 56 titles are also in the process of being printed. About 126 more titles are being reviewed and will be ready for printing in early 1997. Once they are printed and distributed to schools throughout the Federation, the new planning cycle should have been envisaged.

The present assessment shows about 230,000 pupils and 9,000 teachers in primary schools on the parts of the Federation territory under previous B&H Army control. The figures for the other part of the Federation under HVO control are not entirely inaccessible, but they could not be confirmed with a level of precision, or documented from reliable sources. They revolve around 50,375 pupils, but they include children in both elementary primary schools grades 1-4, and the regular primary schools grades 1-8. In these schools there are 1,430 teachers. It could be, then, estimated that about 280,000 pupils attend primary schools in the whole Federation. There are altogether about 10,500 teachers, both certified and those not properly certified, in the primary schools. The central Pedagogical Institute in Sarajevo prepared a detailed survey with all the relevant elements per municipality and canton. This survey would establish a real data base in education in terms of number of schools, pupils, teachers, damaged and repaired schools etc. It will also act as a resource for potential reconstruction projects and donors wishing to become involved in such activities. Its main weakness lies in the fact that it is more than a comprehensive survey, which would take months before the reliable data could be gathered, downloaded into computers and then analyzed. Additional difficulty would be in the constant mobility of pupils, either coming back as returnees to the country, or moving with their families to the more favorable places in the Federation.

3.3.2. Issues and recommendations

It could be predicted that figures given would not differ much from those already quoted, at least during the first winter months of 1997. A slow return of refugees in the course of 1996 was evident mostly in Bihaæ and Travnik (about 6%). However, the return of refugees from abroad in 1997, would be a major issue since a number of countries would find ways to send the refugees back to Bosnia and Herzegovina. Current discussions in certain countries (such as Germany) could only postpone somewhat a massive return because of the winter, but spring and summer 1997 would be the critical periods for the return of refugees. Their return would mean more problems for the already crowded schools and the need for teachers in certain areas and for specific courses (mostly foreign languages, math, natural sciences). It would also present additional financial burden on municipalities and cantons (largely responsible for primary education). There could be serious problems in meeting even the basic needs for pupils in terms of school material and textbooks. Real estimates of the number of children are hard to assess. If Germany alone has about 320,000 refugees, approximately 70,000 of them are of school age. It is highly recommended that they come back in an organized way and with some orientation about the present school conditions and education requirements. A number of international organizations, under the auspices of UNHCR, should become more involved with this process. It is equally important as the process of physical and academic reconstruction. The return could produce more anxieties and disrupt the fragile social structure on the Federation territories regardless of sympathies and understanding of the current population. It would have its reflections and consequences among school children. Counseling in schools and communities should be carefully prepared and planned in order to avoid unnecessary tensions. Media must be used in a more sophisticated way than the comparable anti-mining campaign or calling to elections by OSCE. A psychological barrier would be the most difficult among the smallest children (grades 1-4), and it is there where UNICEF, together with the authorities of the Federation, cantons and municipalities, should plan its own activities to deal with the situation.

Returning teachers could also be seen as another target group. Most of them have had regular education before the war. They continued to work as voluntary or paid teachers in their respective host countries. They have become used to certain norms and standards they would find difficult

Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

to simply abandon. Their level of adjustment must be seen as between medium to low. They would be ready to find faults in schools they were coming to, and to complain about the overall conditions more than the others. They should be immediately involved into the action plan of making adjustments to incoming children. A number of seminars should also be prepared for them in order to enter the local school situation without possible clashes. Their expertise gained abroad should be directed towards such issues like the reform of the system or curricula, innovation and modernization of teaching process, but without them patronizing the local teachers or vice versa. UNICEF should be concerned about these issues because its role should be interpreted as **family** oriented.

The other area of UNICEF's concern should be seen in proposing experts from abroad who could work with the Bosnian educators in bringing together early child development and care with the pre-school and primary school education. It is there where the Federation Ministry of Education and the cantonal ministries should be given most assistance. Defining priorities in these subsectors and joining them with the ongoing education activities (active learning resource centers, or youth clubs for talented children, for instance) could be the focal points of the UNICEF's strategy in the next two years. Potential partners there are, again, UNESCO, UNHCR, UNDP, the World Bank, European Union, Council of Europe, the Soros Foundation, University of Pittsburgh, USIS, USAID, CARE (Canada), CRS, Scandinavian organizations from Norway, Denmark and Sweden, and the governmental and non-governmental organizations from France, Germany, Italy and Spain. Certain Islamic organizations, such as Muwafaq, High Saudi Committee or those from Turkey, Egypt, Kuwait, Malaysia and other countries should be also invited through their Coordination Council of Islamic agencies operating in Bosnia.

UNICEF should be only partially involved in the process of education reform in terms of curricula, textbooks and related issues above grades 1-4 in primary schools. It should, of course, be present in the projects and activities concerned about the changes in teacher education and, particularly, in the areas described as organization's primary interest. For this reasons, the analysis of programmatic issues should be treated separately.

Prof. Dr. Srebren Dizdar
Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

4. Programmatic Issues

4.1 Enrollments & employment: students and teachers

Table 1.

Primary education in Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1945:

Region	No. of Schools	No. of Teachers	No. of Pupils
Banja Luka	169	284	21,345
Bihaæ	66	91	6,157
Mostar	132	215	17,833
Travnik	44	75	4,978
Tuzla	142	251	22,290
Sarajevo (City)	12	185	8,572
Sarajevo	119	187	15,941
TOTAL	684	1,288	97,116

Table 2.

Primary Education in Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1990/1991:

Region	Number of pupils	Classroom - Units	Average number of pupils
Banja Luka	100,411	3,772	26.62
Bihaæ	41,178	1,539	26.75
Doboj	58,940	2,167	27.20
Mostar	55,651	2,133	26.10
Sarajevo	103,095	3,543	29.10
Tuzla	114,295	4,092	27.94
Zenica	73,594	2,554	28.81
TOTAL	547,164	19,800	27.63

Table 3.

Prof. Dr. Srebren Dizdar
Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

Teachers, administrators and technical staff in 1990/91:

Region	Real number of employees	Overall No of teachers & administration	Pedagogical standards		Total
			Technical staff	Teachers & technical staff	
Banja Luka	6,229	5,391.19	1,466.55	6,857.74	
Bihaæ	2,281	2,099.03	525.06	2,624.09	
Doboj	3,355	3,001.06	751.08	3,752.44	
Mostar	3,535	3,102	779	3,881	
Sarajevo	5,780	4,835.24	1,187.11	6,022.35	
Tuzla	6,578	5,720.41	1,383.23	7,103.64	
Zenica	3,926	3,011.46	1,102.47	4,113.93	
TOTAL	31,684	27,160.39	7,194.80	34,355.19	

Total number of primary schools: 2,203

Total number of certified teachers in classrooms: 24,241

In order to make necessary comparison, here are some figures and data about the changes that took place in primary education in Bosnia and Herzegovina in the course of 1960s, 1970s, 1980s and 1990s:

Primary Education

Table 4.

Academic Year	No. of Schools	No. of Pupils	No. of Classrooms	No. of Teachers
1965/1966	2,696	597,256	17,874	15,856
1970/1971	2,714	644,497	22,428	21,798
1980/1981	2,462	625,619	20,210	23,053
1990/1991	2,205	539,875	19,383	23,369

Primary Education

Table 5.

Academic Year	Pupils	Females	Teachers	Females
1991/1992+	547,164	284,336	24,241	17,563
1993/1994*	210,408	103,034	7,057	4,181

Prof. Dr. Srebren Dizzdar
Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

1994/1995*	209,803	106,353	8,300	5,220
1995/1996**	254,744	-	9,730	-
1996/1997* *	280,000	-	10,500	-

Remark:

+ denotes the whole Bosnia and Herzegovina

* denotes data available for the territories under the control of B&H Army.

** denotes data for the whole Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Figures given above should be taken as approximate, but fairly accurate since the sources of reference in the war years could not be always checked with certainty due to the lack of proper communications and extreme mobility of pupils with their parents, most often because of forced circumstances caused by the war activities in their respective areas. Since October 1995, some figures became available from the territories of the Federation B&H under the control of HVO units ("Herzeg-Bosnia"). These figures were included into the chart but they represented a cumulative number of war schools, both grades 1-4 and 1-8. The figures for the current academic 1996/1997 year cover the whole territory of the Federation B&H, and are, again, presented with a higher level of accuracy. Nevertheless, there is a constant change in numbers because of the returnees who happen to go back from 109 countries all over the world. The regional (cantonal) distribution of pupils on the Federation territories could not be absolutely compared since the cantonal boundaries do not correspond to the seven pre-war regions. In addition, a large number of people changed their former places of residence, even in 1996, when many Serbs left the territories now in the Federation; or the previously expelled people from Srebrenica and _epa settled in the cantons of Tuzla, Zenica and Sarajevo, respectively.

The same applied to the overall number of teachers. They tend to concentrate mostly in larger, urban areas where the quality of living is somewhat better than in the remote rural regions. The number of teachers does not meet the number of students, especially for certain subjects such as foreign languages, math and sciences. The opportunities for pre-service training of teachers are still limited.

Institutions which train Teachers

Table 6.

S A R A J E V O

Prof. Dr. Srebren Dizzdar
Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

Place	Institution	Opened	Years of study	Certified to teach grades
Sarajevo	Secondary Teacher Training School	(1886) (closed 1969) 1994	4	1-4
Sarajevo	Pedagogical Academy (4 departments)*	(1946) 1969	2	1-8
Sarajevo	Faculty of Philosophy (12 departments)+	1950	4	1-12
Sarajevo	Faculty of Natural Sciences (5 departments)#	1958	4	1-12
Sarajevo	Faculty of Political Sciences (2 departments)\$	1961	4	1-12
Sarajevo	Faculty of Physical Education	1974	4	1-12
Sarajevo	Music Academy	1955	4	1-12
Sarajevo	Academy of Fine Arts	1972	4	1-12

Sarajevo	Faculty of Islamic Sciences	1977	4	Could teach religion in grades 1-12
Sarajevo	Roman Catholic Diocesan Theological School	1890 (1993-1996 in Croatia)	4	Could teach religion in grades 1-12

Remarks:

Prof. Dr. Srebren Dizzdar
Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

* Pedagogical Academy in Sarajevo has 4 departments: Class instruction grades 5-8, Preschool education, Bosnian Language and Literature, Home Economics and Chemistry.

+ Faculty of Philosophy has the following Departments: Philosophy and Sociology; Pedagogy; Psychology; History; Southern Slavic languages /Bosnian, Croatian, Serbian/, South Slavic Literatures /Bosniak, Serbian, Croatian, Slovenian, Macedonian/; Oriental Languages and Literatures /Arabic, Turkish, Persian/; Romance Languages and Literature /French , Latin and Italian/; Slavistics and Literature /Russian/; English Language and Literature /with some of American Studies/; German Language and Literature; Comparative literature and Library Science.

Faculty of Natural Sciences has 5 departments: Mathematics; Physics; Chemistry; Biology; and Geography.

\$ Faculty of Political Sciences has two departments which educate potential teachers: Sociology; and Defense and Protection.

Table 8.

M O S T A R

Place	Institution	Opened	Years of study	Certified to teach grades
Mostar (East)	Pedagogical Academy *	(1950) 1969	2	1-8
Mostar (West)	Faculty of Pedagogy *	1994	4	1-12
Miroki Brijeg Mostar West	Academy of Fine Arts	1996	4	1-12

Remark:

* Both institutions claim to have continued the tradition of the Advanced School of Pedagogy set up in 1951 and renamed Pedagogical Academy in 1969 when it merged with the Secondary Teacher Training School. The Pedagogical Academy in Mostar before the War had 5 departments /Serbo-Croat Language and Literature; Mathematics and Physics; Chemistry and Biology; History and Geography; Preschool education/

Table 9.

Prof. Dr. Srebren Dizdar
Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

Z E N I C A

Place	Institution	Opened	Years of Study	Certified to teach grades
Zenica	Pedagogical Academy (1 department with 11 fields of studies)	1994	2	1-8
Zenica	Islamic Pedagogical Academy	1994	2	1-8

Table 10.

T U Z L A

Place	Institution	Opened	Years of Study	Certified to teach grades
Tuzla	Secondary Teacher training School	(1945) (closed 1969) 1994	4	1-4
Tuzla	Faculty of Philosophy *	1993	4	1-12

Remark:

* It continued the activities of the Pedagogical Academy in Tuzla, established in 1969 from the previous Advanced School of Pedagogy (1960) with 6 departments /Language and Literature; Mathematics and Physics; Chemistry and Home Economics; Physical Education; Technical education; Class Instruction grades 5-8/ and the Secondary Teacher Training School.

Table 11.

B I H A Æ

Prof. Dr. Srebren Dizdar
Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

Place	Institution	Opened	Years of Study	Certified to teach grades
Bihaæ	Pedagogical Academy	1994	2	1-8
Bihaæ	Islamic Pedagogical Academy	1996	2	1-8

Table 12.

T R A V N I K

Travnik	Secondary Teacher Training School	(1955) (closed 1969) 1994	4	1-4
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Table 13.

Primary education teachers according to age and gender in 1994/95:

Age	Total number	Females
20 - 29 years	2,098	1,347
30 - 39 years	2,541	1,568
40 - 49 years	2,005	1,032
50 years and over	1,656	1,032
TOTAL	8,300	5,220

4.2. Curriculum

Bosnia and Herzegovina has had a long tradition of centralized, “national” curriculum from the early stage of its public education system. It always clearly reflected the dominant ideology in the society, either based on interest of the current ruling regime and the most dominant part/class/group in the country at the time. It revolved mainly around the most sensitive issues in the dominantly multiethnic, multireligious and

Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

multicultural society. The common denominator for each attempt in the last 120 years could be seen in the forced imposition of a single, prescriptive and prevailing philosophy within the heavy loaded, traditional, contents oriented curriculum, regardless if it had been introduced by the regimes of Austro-Hungarian Empire, the Kingdom of Yugoslavia, the so called Independent state of Croatia or the Communist Yugoslavia. Differences from the previous periods were officially suppressed both in the uniform curricula and the accompanying textbooks. The interpretation of facts reflected the dominant ideology, whereas any opposing or conflicting views were deemed wrong and, consequently, excluded from education process. They could be used only as “negative examples” when necessary.

Since the Communist ideology prevailed in the society for the last 45 years, it left many marks in the education system. In the years prior to the outbreak of the war in Bosnia and Herzegovina, significant revisions and changes took place mostly in primary and secondary education levels. The curriculum still remained obligatory for the whole country, but it eased up its former rigid postulates. It opened up room for a more diverse system, based on the principles of multiparty parliamentary democracy and free market economy. It also introduced a possibility for optional (elective) teachings of religion in schools, and claimed to have been more open to international accomplishments in skill-oriented curricula than ever before.

Unfortunately, there was no time even to start implementing such a transitory curriculum because of the war. Due to the development of situation in certain areas of Bosnia and Herzegovina, three different types of curriculum emerged. In the territories controlled by the Bosnian Serbs (Republika Srpska), the traditional curriculum structure and contents were simply taken from Serbia, including the use of Serbian “ekavian” dialect as official one, favoring only Cyrillic alphabet, emphasizing Serbian history, culture, traditions, literature and Christian Orthodox religion, and excluding any connections of living together with any other nation of different ethnic, religious or cultural background in the country. In the areas controlled by HVO (“Herzeg-Bosnia”), the curriculum was taken from Croatia, with the emphasis on Croatian as the only official label for the language spoken and used, the use of Latin alphabet, the Croatian nationhood and its history, culture, literature, traditions, and Roman Catholic religion. In both case, any other nation or group, regardless of its previous or current number or actual status in the community, could not hope for affirming to preserving its own traditions, language, literature, history etc.

Prof. Dr. Srebren Dizzar
Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

The territories under the control of B&H Army developed a revised curriculum in 1993-1994 under the auspices of the /then/ Ministry of Education in the Government of the Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Because of the war situation, the Ministry could not gather all the experts in the respective fields and disciplines. It also decided to postpone nine-year primary education and to retain the traditional contents oriented curriculum with some smaller changes in the group of particularly sensitive (“national”) subjects: language and literature, history, geography, sociology, arts and music. This curriculum was again supposed to be prescriptive for the whole country, or, at least, the territories under the B&H Army control, as well as the Bosnian refugees ex-territorial schools abroad. Consequently, a number of textbooks was prepared and published in the course of summer 1994. These 56 titles, with the total circulation of 1.6 million copies, were printed in Slovenia and brought into the country at the beginning of 1994/95 academic year. They were distributed free of charge to school libraries. Seminars for teachers were also set up in order to prepare them to use both the curriculum and the textbooks. Some other ways of assessing the value of the textbooks and curriculum were organized throughout 1995 and 1996. They provided useful insights into the overall structure of curriculum, and pointed to its strong and weak components. In the meantime, the work on preparing the other textbook titles followed. It could be said that around 150 titles are currently in use, and that other 125 ones were written, reviewed and prepared for printing. The majority of those still not printed fall into the category of highly specialized textbooks for subjects in secondary, mostly vocational and trade schools.

The Dayton Accords definitely vested the authority towards cantons in terms of making their own curricula and textbooks. It means that at least ten different curricula multiplied with the same number of textbooks could possibly emerge in the years to come on the comparatively small territories. The Federal Ministry of Education tried to avoid this costly operation by having invited the representatives of cantonal ministries (still very much in the process of getting organized) to discuss the issues. So far, the efforts proved not to be successful. For the time being, there are, at least, two different curricula which could be considered as prevailing: the Croatian (i.e. created in Zagreb), and the Bosnian (i.e. created in Sarajevo). They are applied on the territories either under the previous B&H Army or HVO control. The constraints become more pronounced in the two cantons which are “mixed” per definition (Middle Bosnia in Travnik, and Neretva in Mostar). They use either curriculum depending on the inner distribution of power inherited after the cessation of hostilities in 1994. Additional problems arise in the areas where the representatives of Croat teachers insist on the separate (or even segregationist) systems of

Prof. Dr. Srebren Dizzdar
Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

education with the application of their own, i.e. Zagreb curriculum. These requests are usually combined with the call for a high degree of political self-rule in the pockets where there are a number of Croat people (Brèko-Ravne, Tuzla /Soli/, Te_anj /Usora/, Zenica, Kakanj, Vare_, Sarajevo /the area of Stup near Ilid_a/, Konjic, Jablanica, Bugojno, Travnik, Bihaæ). At the same time, the Croat partners in the Federation do no want to grant the same rights to the Bosniak and other people living in the areas under their effective control (Posavina - Ora_je and Od_ak, _epèe, Kiseljak, Novi Travnik, Busovaæa, Kre_evo, Kupres, Tomislavgrad, Livno, Ljubu_ki, Mostar West, Èapljina, Stolac, Glamoè. Drvar).

It seems that the previous talks led to no conclusion even at the initial stages. One of the primary roles of the UNICEF sponsored monthly meetings of the cantonal ministries of education in 1997 would definitely have to be dealing with this issue. The basis for discussion should be found in the new, decentralized education environment. Nevertheless, a decentralization did not necessarily exclude a possibility and a need for mutual respect of acquired values - be it national, cultural, traditional and educational - and for a dialogue which could address the ways of reaching a compromise first, and consensus second. It is hard to predict when such a compromise could be eventually reached, but it should take into account that a lack of good will to resolve a problem could not be a proper excuse for the current situation. A scarcity of any viable resources in the education sector would soon become a limitation to improve the overall conditions in education, and to work towards upgrading of curricula and textbooks. Revisions of all curricula are more than necessary. They appear to be a must in the time to come, primarily in the orientation towards skills and less to accumulation of often not necessary facts and figures. The quality of curricula and textbooks would, by then, become a normal precondition for the further development in education, and not the "burning issue of the day" *per se*, as it happens to be now. If any real piece of advice could be offered in this moment, it would be to suggest to all the key educators and other players to work towards common issues and not to always stress the differences and particularities. This does not mean that anyone involved in the process should give up its beliefs, standpoints or values based on their own sense of belonging to a certain national corpus. On the contrary, while retaining these values, the sides should endeavor to come closer there where they could achieve the much needed consensus. From that point on, there could be a real progress attained.

4.3. Evaluation

Prof. Dr. Srebren Dizzdar
Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

A student accomplishment is evaluated on the basis of a continuous assessment. It means that the overall performance is observed, and, combined, with the occasional and regular written and oral tests and exams, the final grade for the period/semester/school year is reached. The system begins rather early - in the first grade and is strictly applied throughout the education in primary and secondary levels. In lower grades (1-4) a single teacher is responsible for all the subjects, whereas the higher grades (5-8), and in the secondary schools, there is a teacher for every course of instruction. The accretion of knowledge on a year-by-year basis is a rationale for periodical testing and grading. It is done at least four times a year. Usually, the average grade is reached in the end unless there is a need to produce a passing grade out of mostly negative ones, or higher grade for the overall achievement. The grades are duly kept in the register books, and are given at the end of the each year in the appropriate document (student's grade booklet). At the end of the primary education, the overall average of grades become a decisive element for entrance into the secondary schools. The same happens at the end of secondary education, although the entrance exams to universities became competitive again after the end of the war. The emphasis in such a system of evaluation is in the virtual acquisition of skills and knowledge. Although claimed to follow the gradual widening and deepening of knowledge, it is not so. The evaluation does not correspond to the inherent system of knowledge repeated in cycles, where grade 7 in primary school corresponds to grade 3 (11) in secondary school. The difference is in the load projected. The basic information is given at the lower level, and the subsequent one is seen as complementary or "upgrading" of already "acquired" knowledge. The current system presupposes that students retain the facts and figures without forgetting them. They are ideal machines with a lot of empty space to be filled in with more and more facts and figure. It is there that the entire system is neither productive nor especially meaningful. It lacks the real information on behalf of students' final competence. The evaluation stresses more formal than actual competence. In reality, grades often prove to be misleading. They also could not give the best picture on teachers' performance. Very often in the past, the average results of the entire class or school meant the appropriate lack of funding or its increase. It put teachers and schools in rather awkward situation. They had to make up higher grades in order to present the good picture of their performance and keep their salaries. As much as this system was largely abandoned, it could still be felt due to the recent mishaps. Both students and teachers often use it as an excuse for not performing well. The lack of properly qualified teachers and the disruptive teaching process (due to war activities, lack of space, equipment, heating or textbooks) lowered the criteria in

Prof. Dr. Srebren Dizzdar
Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

students' evaluation. The process seems to be reversed as of 1996/1997 academic year, since the stricter evaluation has been applied again.

Teachers' evaluation is traditionally accomplished through the Pedagogical Institutes. Their experts, usually teachers with 20 or more years in the field, serve as counselors in these institutions. They occasionally visited the schools and are entitled to check upon teachers. This was especially true for the newcomers, or those who have not passed the certification exam, or so called "state exam". Pedagogical Institute counselors could play the role of mentors in such cases. However, they restricted their activities mostly to coming to classes without previous announcement. There they could judge on the spot if the pedagogy, methodics, didactics, compliance to the curriculum etc. were duly observed. Their professional decision could influence the final evaluation of teachers. It has seldom happened that the assessment led to firing of a teacher or a decrease in salary. There were no additional measures prescribed such as taking additional courses at the nearby university. Continuous education remained more a popular slogan than the real issue in schools. Seminars organized during the winter or summer breaks where University faculty lectured participants without their proper involvement proved to be both outdated and costly. They usually did not improve neither teachers' competence nor actual performance, are should be organized on a different basis.

Possible changes in overall system of evaluation should be closely connected with the radical change in structuring the primary and secondary school system. In this system, primary school lasts nine and secondary three more years. They are perceived as combined (1-12) and should be seen as both complementary and compulsory. If the EU standards were to be applied (as it had been the intention before the war), then the evaluation must be in accord with the proposed system of going through gradual stages in primary education. They are described as 3+3+3 years in the nine-year system. It means that the first three years are a general introduction to education and grades are not even mentioned in the class. This is "a soft stage". The next three years make the education a bit more serious issue, and some grades could be introduced. The last three years of primary and the final three years of secondary education denote the full grading system. These six years must be seen as interconnected. They correspond to the active years in learning, and must be brought into harmony with the educational goals. And these goals should not be obsessed with "producing" potential workers, who could immediately begin operating complicated machines or apply their presumed abilities. Nor should they see school as a mere place for spending time and having fun,

Prof. Dr. Srebren Dizzdar
Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

thus buying the social peace. Primary and secondary school should try to offer a variety of information to its students through a gradual improvement of their cognitive and other potentials. Combined with the attainment of practical skills, these potentials could be consequently shaped into real abilities. These abilities could be, then, focused either on further education or on developing them into the real working performance in the environment a student finds a job. It implies that in the new working environment, a student would be guided for some time before mastering the necessary skills to work on his/her own without guidance or supervision. If a student continues its education on a higher level, the education process there should also be restructured. It must provoke its will to study and not merely accumulate vast amounts of information, to think and reflect rather than memorize, and to be ready to continue with the process of education even after receives its certificate or diploma.

4.4. Facilities and equipment

The current situation is still far from being satisfactory in terms of enough adequate classroom space for the projected enrollments. Although the number of actual students is still much smaller than before the war, one must take into account that the number of schools were either destroyed or severely damaged. Almost 80% of school facilities could not be used for their original purpose after the cessation of armed conflict. The reasons are in the lack of maintenance over the years. It should be also remembered that these premises often served as barracks for military or police units, or, in most case, housed refugees and displaced persons for a longer period of time. As temporary shelters, most of schools were made dysfunctional since their unhappy tenants did not take proper care of either the school furniture, appliances, electricity, sanitation, and sometimes even the very structure of the buildings /roofs and their wooden beams, doors, window frames, parquet floors/. That is why the amount of real damages was much higher than necessary under the circumstances. This is also true for school libraries, labs, gyms and other auxiliary premises. Almost all schools in the war stricken areas need heating to be fixed, most of them need to have major repairs in terms of sanitation, electricity, roofs and windows. The estimates of damages vary. In 1996, the Federal Ministry of Education, its pedagogical Institute and, subsequently, the Project Implementation Unit (PIU) supported by the World Bank Program for Reconstruction, tried to put together the relevant and accurate figures on physical school damages. The assessment was not finalized although basic information was made available. The needs given are enormous and could not be met without the

Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

proper planning for a longer period. Practically, the whole school infrastructure must be thoroughly checked. Wherever necessary, physical repairs must take place since the years of negligence or inability to provide proper maintenance undermined the normal functioning of premises. The most basic repairs should come first. They include closing the buildings (roofs, doors, windows), repair of appliances (water, sanitation, electricity, heating), interior space (floors, walls, ceilings, classrooms, gyms, labs, libraries, hallways etc.), and exterior space(roads, paths, lawns, trees etc.). The basic furniture should be supplied (desks, chairs, blackboards), as well as other equipment in gyms (sports equipment), labs and libraries (shelves, catalogue drawers, computers etc.)

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Resource materials and teaching aids must be gradually but steadily improved. They must serve as a basis for innovations and changes in the teaching process. Using the traditional table and chalk only, and neglecting the potentials of multimedia approaches (computers, Internet connectivity, photocopying machines, faxes, modems, more sophisticated labs and new data integrated scientific methods for processing information, internal TV, pre-recorded classes or live transmissions of classes) could prevent the real development of the education system. UNICEF should be responsible for organizing seminars and presentations of the more sophisticated teaching aids through the establishment of its resource centers throughout the Federation. Continuous training of educators in such centers could help bridging the gap caused by the war. Wherever possible, UNICEF should find local partners, most likely among the professional institutions which are interested in promoting such activities. In Federation, these institutions are Pedagogical Academies and University faculties which prepare new teachers. The other partners include pedagogical institutes and cantonal ministries. The support for the centers could be combined with the efforts of other international organizations and NGOs, such as the "Soros" Foundation or CRS.

4.5. Cost, financing and donor support

The total estimates of funds needed for a reconstruction of the educational system in the Federation lies somewhere between \$300-400 million, but the more careful evaluation would probably show the figure over \$500 million. This does not include a provision of funds for maintenance and recurring costs, which should be also provided if the further deterioration of premises should have been prevented. It is clear

Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

that such a large amount could not be found, yet alone implemented. The major donors in the subsector include the World Bank/IBRD, ECHO (European Union Humanitarian Organization), USAID, UNICEF, UNHCR, UNDP, UNESCO, EBRD, Cooperazione Italiana, SIDA (Swedish International Development Agency), Danish Refugee Council /DRC/, Norwegian People's Aid /NPA/, and a number of organizations from Germany, Great Britain, France, Spain, Italy, Austria, Czech Republic, Greece, Islamic countries, Canada and Japan. Such a large number of organizations present in the Federation shows that there are too many attempts to assist and a lack of proper coordination between them. The Federation Ministry of Education could not be solely responsible for the task. Its own PIU could not work as the only structure in the subsector in terms of preparing the grounds for possible reconstruction, choosing the adequate firms in the process of bidding and final selection; as well as monitoring the implementation of works. Since the priorities in the subsector seem to be on primary education, and, for the time being, on the schools with light or small damages, there could be no major results achieved in the first few years (1996-1998). The main donor, the World Bank, gave \$5 million in 1996 to repair 88 primary schools on the sites jointly selected by the Bosniak and Croatian partners in the Federation Ministry. The results are considerable but still modest due to the complicated bureaucratic procedures on one hand, and the slow process of local administrations and companies to adjust to certain procedures and rules set up by the investor.

The absorbing capacity of the Bosnian side has its previous and current limitations. Even if the larger sums were secured, the question remains if they could be "sucked in" with the necessary level of correct handling the funds available. The funds offered are more than limited. On the other hand, the Government of the Federation could only hope to obtain proper financing for a partial reconstruction of school premises. Its investment possibilities would be limited for a longer period. The situation is even worse on the cantonal or municipal levels. The local authorities should be helped in order to provide the maintenance costs (up to 50% of estimated costs to be reached over the period of 5 years after the completion of reconstruction of a certain building), and the salaries for teachers and staff (up to 75% in the period not exceeding two years after the stable revenues from the local economy could be described as "real" and steady). The missing funds should be provided through the international assistance, either as grants or on a loan basis.

The overall costs per family for education are still not that big since the education continues to be both compulsory and free. Textbooks and

Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

school materials are also given free of charge for the time being. However, a gradual introduction of paying the expenses for public utilities services rendered (electricity, gas, heating, housing costs etc.) begin to burden meager family budgets. Only 240,000 people are estimated to be employed this way or another in October 1996, according to the official Bureau of Statistics. 450,00 are out of work or not receiving any substantial salary or other means of compensation. The minimum salary does not exceed 80 DM per month, and the average is around 300-400 DM. Very few people make 500 and more DM per month, usually those employed by the international organizations. There is no generating income coming from the traditional sources of revenues in the subsector (industry), and the taxation system is less than adequate to fill in the public funds in education, or any other public sector for that matter. This causes serious barriers for pursuing other levels of education, especially there where a student must bear living costs (if studying outside the place of residence, both in secondary and higher education). Since there are no pre-war student dormitories, and a private accommodation in the destroyed environment is very high; the cost of lodging, food, clothing, books and money for entertainment becomes a meaningful barrier for enrollment. This is particularly true for those who had lost their property and steady income, or both. The situation is by far the worst among the refugees and displaced persons, whose sole idea is to make it through the day or two at a time.

5. Closing Issues and Recommendations

The complexity of the situation in the subsector must be seen in the context of the whole education sector. They could not be treated or addressed separately since the task is enormous. It also requires a clear definition of the main aims and objectives for all the levels of the Government, and especially, for the Federation Ministry of Education and the newly established cantonal ministries. Since their general authority has been determined with some precision in the Dayton Accords, it would be necessary to offer these main aims and objectives in education in the Federation, as much as they may seem both too idealistic to be achieved over the period of years to come. In any case, they could become the points of departure for discussion and deliberation by all who happen to be involved in the process of defining the strategy and policy for education in Bosnia and Herzegovina. These are some of them which the Government could adopt as its own principles:

Situation Analysis of Educational Services for Children in Bosnia-Herzegovina

- to provide a basic education to all, or, at least, for as many children as possible, and to increase access to education for the warfare victims both in rural and urban areas;
- to contribute to the economic and social development of the people by providing skilled and well-educated manpower to meet the needs of the country's future development;
- to encourage the increased participation in the provision of educational services by local communities, public and private resources and organizations;
- to ensure an equitable distribution of the pre-school, primary and secondary schools in the process of reconstruction and rehabilitation;
- to provide balanced programs of both academic and practical courses for the full development of children in a society in postwar and emergency stages and on the edge of transition towards free market economy environment;
- to focus the education system towards full development of the country's human resources;
- to improve the quality of early child development, primary and secondary education as a continuous process which would encompass most children in the Federation age 0-19;
- to improve the quality of instruction by a continual assessment and revision of the school curriculum in light of the reconstruction and transition needs of the country, and to support local provision of textbooks and other teaching aids and resources;
- to encourage greater understanding of different ethnic, cultural, religious, social status, environmental and communal traditions and heritage to promote the process of reconciliation and mutual respect of differences;
- to stress the importance of a development of a child as an individual and promote its physical, cognitive, social, cultural and moral growth and development as a person who could progress to its full potential while acquiring the knowledge, skills and attitudes which could enhance its further learning.